

## METHOD AND SYSTEM FOR IDENTIFYING AND LOCATING DEFECTS IN AN INTEGRATED CIRCUIT

### 5    Background of the Invention

          This invention relates to production testing of integrated circuits, particularly production testing of a completed but unpackaged circuit die by measuring the current drawn by the circuit at a plurality of power nodes, to determine whether the circuit is defective or not.

10           Integrated circuits typically comprise a semiconductor substrate on which several component layers have been formed to produce a large number of laterally-distributed transistors and other circuit devices. Additional connection layers are formed on top of the component layers to provide interconnections among and power to the circuit devices, and input and output signal connections to the devices. Power is typically delivered to the  
15    devices by a grid of power conductors which pass through the conduction layers to the devices periodically and terminate at pads disposed on the top layer of the die, thereby minimizing the resistance encountered by the current. Also, typically, the pads alternate between power pads and ground pads, the input and output signal pads being interspersed among the power and ground pads. Thus, an integrated circuit can be somewhat likened  
20    architecturally to a multi-story office building, where the circuit devices are on the ground floor, the interconnections between the devices are made by the upper floors, the power connections are made between the ground floor and the roof by an interconnected lattice of support columns, and additional columns are provided for input and output  
25    signal connections between the ground floor and the roof.

          An integrated circuit as described above is known as a "die." Prior to distribution and use, a die is ordinarily placed in a hermetically-sealed package having pins or bumps for providing power, input and output connections to the circuit. As packaging adds significant cost to the final product, the die is ordinarily tested after fabrication is completed but before packaging to determine whether it is defective, in which case it is  
30    not packaged.

One known way to test a die is to measure the total quiescent current drawn by all of the power connection pads. If the total quiescent current significantly exceeds the maximum expected amount, then it can be concluded that the circuit has an internal short and is, therefore, defective. Another way to test a die is to measure the total current  
5 drawn by all of the power connection pads as a sequence of different input signal vectors is applied. An input vector is an ordered set of signals supplied to respective input signal connections. If the total current is significantly more or less than that expected for a given input vector, then it may be concluded that the circuit is defective, due either to a short or an open circuit. A third way to test a die is to measure the quiescent current at a plurality  
10 of power connection pads, thereby enabling the detection and localization of a shorting defect. To accomplish this, a calibration circuit must be embedded in the integrated circuit. These tests are described in C. Patel, E. Staroswiecki, S. Pawar, D. Acharyya and J. Plusquellic, "Diagnosis using Quiescent Signal Analysis on a Commercial Power Grid," International Symposium for Testing and Failure Analysis, pp. 713-722, 2002  
15 (Pheonix, Arizona).

While quiescent current measurements can be used to identify and locate some types of defects, other types of defects do not manifest in the steady state currents of quiescent measurements. Accordingly, an improved, more comprehensive testing procedure and apparatus would be desirable. In addition, it would be desirable to take  
20 into account the manufacturing and testing variability that occurs with power supply current testing so as to identify and locate defects more accurately.

### Summary of the Invention

In light of the foregoing, an approach for testing an integrated circuit having a  
25 power grid and a plurality of ordered connections to the power grid has been created according to the present invention. The approach provides a method comprising applying a time-varying input signal to the integrated circuit, measuring power signals produced at a plurality of respective ordered connections in response to the input signal, and identifying from the power signals so measured one or more defects in the integrated  
30 circuit.

The approach also provides a probe for connecting to the die of an integrated circuit prior to final packaging, a testing system for applying input signals to the die and acquiring die power signal measurements in response thereto, and a data processor for determining whether the power signal measurements indicate the presence of a defect in the die.

There is further provided a method for reducing the effect of contact resistance from test probe connections, comprising determining a first array of reference calibration power signal values for a reference device, determining a second array of test device power signal values for the integrated circuit under test, inverting the second array and multiplying it times the first array to produce a third, transformation array, and multiplying the measured test power signal values, produced under a subsequent set of logic tests, times the transformation array prior to identifying defects.

As a way of implementing the approach of the present invention there is also provided an integrated circuit, comprising a plurality of signal processing circuit components disposed on a substrate, a power grid for supplying power to the signal processing circuit components, and having a plurality of ordered connections to the power grid, and a plurality of calibration circuits associated with respective ordered connections so as to selectively inject transient signals onto the power grid at respective locations.

It is to be understood that this summary is provided as a means of generally determining what follows in the drawings and detailed description of the invention and is not intended to limit the scope of the invention. Moreover, the objects, features and advantages of the invention will be more fully understood upon consideration of the following detailed description of the invention taken in conjunction with the accompanying drawings.

## Brief Description of the Drawings

Figure 1 is a three-dimensional, exploded view of the inner structure of a typical IC die.

Figure 2 is a top, illustrative view of a typical IC die showing electrical power  
5 connection pads and a portion thereof known as a quadrant.

Figure 3 is a logic diagram illustrating some types of defects that may be produced when an IC die is fabricated.

Figure 4 is a simplified schematic diagram of a quadrant of an IC die illustrating the concept of equivalent resistance.

10 Figure 5 is a simplified schematic diagram of a quadrant of an IC die illustrating, in Part A, the concept of equivalent impedance and, in Part B, a resistance-only equivalent circuit for two power connections of the quadrant.

Figure 6 is a waveform of a defect simulation transient signal.

Figure 7 is a set of related diagrams showing a hyperbola model for locating a  
15 defect in an IC in accordance with the present invention.

Figure 8 is a schematic diagram of a test power supply, probe card and contact system for testing an IC.

Figure 9 is a schematic diagram of a preferred embodiment of a calibration circuit used in accordance with the present invention.

20 Figure 10 is a graph of typical calibration circuit waveforms used in accordance with the present invention.

Figure 11 is a flow chart of a preferred process according to the present invention.

Figure 12 is an illustration of the process of Figure 11 performed for localization.

## 25 Detailed Description of the Invention

The present invention comprises a method and system for testing integrated circuits ("IC"s), particularly large-scale digital ICs, during production, after the circuit die, or chip, has been fabricated but before it is packaged. The invention takes advantage of the dynamic response of the power grid of the IC device under test ("DUT") both to  
30 determine whether the DUT is defective and, if so, to locate the defect. To provide useful terminology and to assist in understanding the description of the invention herein, it is

useful first to describe some pertinent features of a typical IC that the invention may be used to test.

### 1. Typical Integrated Circuit Structure

5 Referring to Figure 1, a typical IC die 10 includes a substrate 12, on which circuit devices such as transistors, resistors and capacitors are formed, signal routing conductors 14, and a three-dimensional power distribution conductor network, or power grid, 16. The power grid includes layers of metallic conductors (commonly referred to as M1, M2 etc., but designated herein by numbers) having signal routing conductors disposed there  
10 between as needed. Thus, for example, a first layer of interleaved parallel metallic conductors 18, 22 (or “M1”) is provided, and a second layer of interleaved parallel metallic conductors 20, 26 (or “M2”) is disposed above and perpendicular to the conductors 18, 22. Conductors 18 and 20 are ground (“gnd”) conductors and are connected together through vias 24. Conductors 22 and 26, are power (“pwr”) conductors and are connected together through vias 28. The ground conductors 18, 22 are known collectively as the “ground grid” and the power conductors 22, 26 conductors are known collectively as the “power grid.” While only two metallic conductor layers 18, 22 and 20, 26 have been shown for illustration, this mesh configuration of power and ground conductors usually comprises many metal layers.

20 Some of the power conductors 26, and ground conductors 20 are terminated at the top of the die with power electrical connection pads 36 (“P<sub>pwr</sub>”) and ground electrical connection pads 38 (“P<sub>gnd</sub>”), respectively, which form respective interleaved two-dimensional arrays. In this way, the power grid 16 provides room at the top of the die for input signal electrical connection pads and output signal electrical connection pads, while  
25 permitting the power distribution network within the die to be relatively dense. All of the pads are commonly known as “C4” pads. The region enclosed by 4 power pads 36 in Figure 1 is referred to as a “quad”.

When the die is packaged, the external IC ground (“GND”) is applied to all of the ground pads P<sub>gnd</sub> 38 and the external IC power (“PWR”), e.g., supply voltage “V<sub>DD</sub>”, is  
30 connected to all of the power pads P<sub>pwr</sub>, 36 so that the resistance between the power source and the devices within the IC that use the power is minimized. The current I<sub>DD</sub>

drawn by the IC is the sum of the currents drawn at all of the power or ground pads. After the die is fabricated, but prior to packaging, the power and ground pads can be accessed to measure the respective individual currents, which enables a defect to be detected and located in accordance with the present invention.

5 Ordinarily, the power pads  $P_{pwr}$  36 are arranged in a two-dimensional square array 40, as shown in Figure 2. The array 40 can be subdivided into adjoining  $2 \times 2$  arrays of power pads, each of which is referred to as a "quad" 42, as mentioned above, and shares two power pads with the next adjacent quad in a given one of two orthogonal directions. Each quad may be assigned an index "q", which runs from 0 to  $(M - 2M^{1/2} + 1)$ , and  
10 within each quad each power pad may be assigned an index "p", which runs from 0 to 3; thus, a given power pad is designated herein either generally as  $P_{pwr(m)}$ , where m ranges from 1 to M, or relative to a quad as  $P_{pwr(qp)}$ . "M" is the total number of power pads. The current drawn by a given power pad may then be designated either as  $i_{pwr(m)}$  or  $i_{pwr(qp)}$ , which are distinguishable by the number of subscripts.

15 The number L of ground pads  $P_{gnd}$  may be, but is not necessarily, the same as the number M of power pads. The ground pads could also be subdivided into quads for the purpose of implementing the present invention, as will be explained below.

The physical location of a power pad in a global Cartesian coordinate system 44 may be designated by a pair of coordinates [h,k]. The physical location of a feature of the  
20 IC within a quad may be designated by the coordinates [x,y] of a local Cartesian coordinate system 46 whose origin is one of the pads of the quad, as explained below. Thus, a defect within quad "q" would be located at position [x,y], as shown by Figure 2.

## 2. IC Defects

25 While the principles of the invention described and claimed herein may be applied to analog as well as digital ICs, the application of greatest interest is to digital ICs and the invention is explained in the context of digital ICs. Figure 3 shows an exemplary set of logic devices 50 within an IC so as to illustrate some types of defects that may be produced in the fabrication of a digital IC die. Thus, there may be an open logic signal  
30 circuit between one device and the next, represented by resistance 52; a short to ground in a logic signal circuit, represented by resistance 54; or a bridge from one logic signal line

to another, represented by resistance 56. All of these defects produce anomalies in the power supply currents. These anomalies are used in the present invention to detect and locate the defects.

While it will be appreciated that there are many pathways between a given power pad of a power grid as described above and the IC ground, the various impedances in the network of pathways between a point in the substrate of the IC and the power pads can be reduced to equivalent impedance, as is well understood in the art. Defect anomalies will alter the supply currents in these equivalent impedances from what they would be in a defect-free IC die.

For example, as shown in Figure 4, where a defect 58 produces a short, represented by resistance 60, from a logic signal line to ground, upon application of supply voltage 59  $V_{DD}$  an elevated steady-state or quiescent supply current is produced through equivalent resistances 64 – 70 to the four power pads  $P_{pwr(00)} - P_{pwr(03)}$  of the quad 62 ( $q = 0$  in this case) in which the defect resides. The magnitude of the elevated currents measured at the supply pads is dependent on the location of the short 60 as well as the underlying architecture of the IC die as a whole. Likewise, the magnitude of the transient current would be dependent on the location of the short in the case of a dynamic signal and on distributed reactances.

To measure the currents, a test probe must be connected to the power pads  $P_{pwr(00)} - P_{pwr(03)}$ . This gives rise to contact impedances 72 - 78, which must be taken into account in making measurements.

### 3. The Test Principles

According to the principles of the present invention, the defect anomalies are identified from the currents measured at power, or ground, pads by a test probe. These currents are measured simultaneously as a means for detecting and locating regional signal variations introduced by defects. Preferably, the transient signals generated at each of the  $M$  power pads 36 ( $P_{pwr(m)}$ ) are analyzed as a test sequence is applied to the inputs or scan latches of the IC logic circuitry. The basic strategy underlying the method is to make use of the spatial variations in the transient signals measured individually at each  $P_{pwr(m)}$  as a means of detecting the defect. The transient signal variations introduced by the

defect manifest in the current measured at surrounding  $P_{pwr(m)}$ s proportional to the “equivalent impedance” between the defect site and each of the  $P_{pwr(m)}$ s. However, it is to be recognized that such signal variations also manifest in the current variations measured at ground pads  $P_{gnd(n)}$ , which may also be used. According to the present invention, a  
5 defect is detected and located using a mapping from the measured supply currents to circuit layout coordinates, as described hereafter.

While some defects can be identified using quiescent, steady-state current analysis, other defects can only be identified in response to a change in the input signal. In the case of a digital IC, the defects manifest themselves as anomalies in the transient  
10 current signals at the power pads  $P_{pwr(m)}$  produced by a change from one logic state to another. As the analysis of transient waveforms themselves is computationally expensive, the area under the waveform over a predefined time interval is computed and used in the analysis instead. The area under the current transient waveform is designated as  $ia_{(m)}$  or  $ia_{(qp)}$  for a given power pad  $P_{pwr(m)}$  or  $P_{pwr(qp)}$ .

15 In the case of transient signals, the reactances of the circuit must be taken into account. Accordingly, a more sophisticated equivalent impedance model is initially needed, as shown by Figure 5, Part A. In this model the equivalent series impedances are represented by resistor-capacitor pairs 100 – 106, other distributed capacitances are represented by capacitors 108 – 114, contact impedances are represented by boxes 116 –  
20 122, and the power supply is represented by voltage sources 124 – 130. The defect is represented by current source 132. However, because of the regularity of the power grid’s resistances and capacitances, this can ordinarily be reduced to a resistance only model, as shown in Figure 5, Part B. In this case current source 134 represents a defect at some location within a quad, resistor 136 represents the equivalent impedance from  
25 power pad  $P_{pwr(q0)}$  to that defect, resistor 138 represents the contact impedance for that pad, resistor 140 represents the equivalent impedance to adjacent pad  $P_{pwr(q2)}$ , and resistor 142 represents the contact impedance at that pad. Voltage sources 144 and 146 represent the power sources applied to the respective power pads. “D” is the distance between the pads, “x” is the distance from  $P_{pwr(q0)}$  to the defect, and “a” is the difference between D  
30 and x. This model is used to find the parameters of a hyperbola described below. For the y dimension,  $P_{pwr(q1)}$  would be used instead of  $P_{pwr(q2)}$ , with an analogous model.



The magnitude of measured  $ia_{(m)}$ s in response to any given test sequence vary widely depending on fabrication process variations and the impedance characteristics of the grid. Ideally, defect detection, and the defect position predicted by the mapping procedure, should be independent of the fabrication process variations and grid parameters. This is accomplished by computing current fractions  $\delta$  using the  $ia_{(qp)}$ s measured at a pair of adjacent power pads. For example, the fraction of current  $I_{DD}$  measured at pad  $P_{pwr(00)}$  for a defect located between pads  $P_{pwr(00)}$  and  $P_{pwr(02)}$  of quad  $m = 0$  in Figure 2 is given by

$$\delta_{(00)} = ia_{(00)} / (ia_{(00)} + ia_{(02)})$$

It has been found in defect simulations that, for a given current fraction  $\delta_{(qx)}$  or  $\delta_{(qy)}$  between two horizontally or vertically adjacent power pads of a quad, respectively, the location of the defect in the quad that caused the anomaly lies on a curve that approximates a hyperbola. More specifically, it has been shown, by applying the triangle wave stimulus  $i_s(t)$  shown in Figure 6 between the power and ground metal conductors at a plurality of locations in a quad of a reference IC without any other defect, measuring the current fractions produced thereby between adjacent pads  $P_{pwr(q0)}$  and  $P_{pwr(q1)}$  along the y dimension, and plotting the positions of wave stimulus for common current fractions, the family of curves 150 in Figure 7, Part A, is produced. Similarly, when the current fractions produced between adjacent pads  $P_{pwr(q0)}$  and  $P_{pwr(q2)}$  along the x dimension are measured, the family of curves 152 in Figure 7, Part B, is produced. As can be seen in Parts A and B of Figure 7, the curves found by this procedure approximate the segments of hyperbolas 154 and 156, respectively.

In a test for defects, rather than a simulation, the intersection of the two hyperbolas 154 and 156 defines an (x,y) coordinate that represents the center or “centroid” 158 of transient activity within the quad of the device under test (“DUT”) under a test sequence, as shown in Figure 7, Part C. The same procedure is applied to the other quads of the DUT. The set of (x,y) coordinates for the DUT can then be compared with those obtained from other defect-free chips. If the (x,y) position for any quad is significantly different (in the statistical sense), the DUT is deemed defective.

Since the use of current fractions eliminates performance differences between defect-free chips, the positions of the centroids among the defect-free chips are similar under the logic test sequence. The presence of a defect, on the other hand, will introduce regional signal variations and will move the centroid in one or more quads. The quads that are most significantly affected are those adjacent to the quad containing the defect because they are positioned to receive a mix of defect and defect-free signal information.

It is to be recognized that the frequency domain representations of the transient waveforms may be used to obtain the same or equivalent results without departing from the principles of the invention. In that case, discretized (sampled) versions of the transient current (or transient voltage) waveforms are acquired and a Fourier Transform ("FT") is performed on the data so acquired. The FT produces a pair of "magnitude" and "phase" components for each of the frequencies that are present in the time domain waveform. The magnitude and phase "spectra" can be viewed as curves, with magnitude or phase on the y-axis and frequency on the x-axis. The area under these curves can be computed as is done for the time domain transient waveforms. More importantly, the areas under portions of the magnitude and phase curves representing respective frequency bands can also be used. By choosing a particular range of frequencies (frequency band), it is possible to eliminate test environment noise. By eliminating noise, it is possible to increase the resolution of the methods to detecting and locating faults.

In addition, the entire methodology can be applied using the transient waveforms measured on the ground pads  $P_{\text{gnd}(n)}$ . For fault detection, this analysis can be used to increase the confidence that the test DUT is bad. For fault localization, the position obtained from the GND pad analysis may provide additional information about the actual circuit "node" that is defective. Using only the power of ground pad currents, the analysis predicts the position on the power or ground grid at which the defect is drawing current; however, this position may not be the exact position of the defect. If the defect exists on the output node of a gate and not in the gate itself, then it is possible that the defect may be located some distance from the predicted position. The prediction provided separately by the ground pad analysis may be combined with the prediction provided by the power pad analysis to narrow down the list of candidate logic signal wires that could be defective.

## 5. The Test Probe

A circuit model of a test probe 200 is shown in Figure 8, including typical lumped circuit component values, together with a quad resistor-capacitor model 202 having a power pad  $P_{\text{pwr}(m)}$  and a ground pad  $P_{\text{gnd}(n)}$ . The probe includes a contact membrane 204; a  
5 printed circuit board 206, having a probe card 208 and decoupling stages 210; and a test system power supply 212. The decoupling stages compensate for the limited frequency response of the system power supply. The probe card portion represents the distributed resistances and reactances associated with the printed circuit board conductors. The contact membrane portion represents the contact impedances. It is to be understood that  
10 this test probe model is exemplary only, and is not intended to be limiting, as other circuits may be used without departing from the principles of the invention.

## 6. Calibration Circuits

The use of current fractions as described above should adequately accommodate  
15 global fabrication process variations, but not variations in the testing environment. Consequently, calibration circuits (" $CC_{(qp)}$ ") and a linear algebra technique are used to calibrate the measured  $ia_{(m)}$ s and to provide a common framework for comparing chip data with a reference. More specifically, the procedure is able to calibrate the  $ia_{(m)}$  data from a test DUT to a set of values that would have been measured under a different set of  
20 probe card parameters. The objectives of this calibration are: (1) to reduce signal variations that are not of interest, such as those introduced by fabrication process variations in the IC and testing environment noise, and (2) to calibrate the measured values so that universal pass/fail criteria can be applied to the entire set of chips.

The calibration circuits are placed under corresponding power pads, and may be  
25 turned on selectively. In this way, a short located in the IC circuit at the location of the power pad may be emulated. By turning on the calibration circuits one-by-one in the DUT, calibration current areas can be measured for calibrating the current measured under a logic test of the test DUT (those used in the current fractions identified previously). In addition, by turning on the calibration circuits one-by-one in a non-  
30 defective reference IC die, or by simulating the response of a non-defective IC die to turning on the calibration circuits one-by-one, a similar set of calibration currents areas

are obtained that can be used to transform the test DUT current fractions to the probe card model used in this reference IC. This process provides the basis for accomplishing item (2) in the objectives identified above.

5       The 250 m $\Omega$  resistors adjacent to points 214 and 216 in Figure 8 represent probe contact resistance, and have the potential to vary widely from touch down to touch down of the probe card. Given the low impedance nature of the power grid, even small changes in contact resistance can introduce large changes in the distribution characteristics of the current to the power and ground pads. The calibration procedure described herein is capable of virtually eliminating signal variations that occur because of probe card  
10       variations, and is also able to reduce signal variations introduced by changes in the power grid impedance characteristics across test DUTs.

One way to account for contact resistance variations is to add circuitry that allows calibration tests to be performed. A circuit that can be used to perform the calibration tests can be relatively straight forward, such as shown in Figure 9. The circuit 250  
15       comprises 2 latches 252 and 254, two NAND gates 256 and 258, and a parallel set of N- and P-channel transistors configured in an CMOS inverter configuration 260. The sources of the N- and P-channel transistors are connected to the power ( $V_{DD}$ ) conductor 22 and ground (GND) conductor 18 of the power grid 10. When the DUT is fabricated, one copy of this circuit is placed under each of the power pads  $P_{pwr(m)}$  in the DUT.

20       The latches 252 and 254 are connected in a scan-chain configuration which is separate from the scan chains that drive the core logic to enable the calibration and defect tests to be conducted independently. The NAND-NAND logic, 256 and 258, allows either a momentary “transient” short whose duration is given by the time it takes a logic signal to propagate from the input of gate 262, through gates 264 and 256, to the output  
25       of gate 258. For example, initializing the scan chain to all 0’s and shifting a string of 1’s will introduce a momentary short as the leading 1 is clocked into latch 254. Similarly, shifting a 1 through a 0 initialized scan chain will sustain a short for as long as a 0-1 state is kept in latches 252 and 254, respectively. Figure 10 shows plots of the power supply signals produced by circuit 250 under the transient test 260 and steady-state shorting test  
30       262.

## 7. Elimination of Contact Resistance Variations

The change in the distribution of current caused by contact resistance variations of the probe card 200 can be calibrated away using the aforementioned linear transformation procedure. According to the procedure, a translation matrix  $X$  is computed using

- 5 calibration current areas for two ICs, a reference IC having a representative current area matrix  $R$ , and a test IC (the DUT) having a measured current area matrix  $A$ . The  $X$  matrix is composed of a set of coefficients that represent the scalars needed to translate the current areas measured under a logic test of the test DUT to the current areas that would have been measured on the reference IC under the same logic test but a different set of  
10 probe card parameters. Thus, the test DUT  $ia_{(m)}$  data is calibrated to the reference IC's probe card, and power grid to a smaller degree.

- As indicated, this calibration procedure makes use of calibration current areas which are collected after the probe card is seated on the test DUT but before any logic tests are applied. For example, the calibration current areas for a portion of the power  
15 grid defined only by quad  $q = 0$  and  $p = 0 - 3$  in Figure 2 comprises 16 calibration current areas ("cia"s), that is, four cias from each of four calibration tests at  $P_{pwr(00)}$  through  $P_{pwr(03)}$ . In the following equation, the  $cia_{(pm)}$ s define a matrix of values  $A$ , the rows index " $p$ " representing the data from respective calibration tests and the column index " $m$ " representing respective  $P_{pwr(m)}$ s. The calibration current areas for the reference IC is given  
20 by  $R$ , having elements  $r_{(pm)}$ , and may be found by actually measuring a defect-free device or by simulation.

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X} \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} x_{00} & x_{01} & x_{02} & x_{03} \\ x_{10} & x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{20} & x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \\ x_{30} & x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{array} = \text{inv} \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} cia_{00} & cia_{01} & cia_{02} & cia_{03} \\ cia_{10} & cia_{11} & cia_{12} & cia_{13} \\ cia_{20} & cia_{21} & cia_{22} & cia_{23} \\ cia_{30} & cia_{31} & cia_{32} & cia_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right) * \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{R} \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} r_{00} & r_{01} & r_{02} & r_{03} \\ r_{10} & r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{20} & r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{30} & r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

25

The N- and P-channel transistors in the calibration test circuits of the DUT and reference IC are not identical because of inter- and intra-die fabrication process variations, causing variations in the calibration stimuli; therefore, the sum of the current

areas computed across each row of the A and R matrices are likely to vary. To eliminate the dependency of the transformation matrix X on the calibration stimuli, the A and R matrix elements are “normalized” by dividing each element by the total current area of its respective row. Then, the transformation matrix X is obtained for the DUT by computing the matrix product of ‘A inverse’ times R. Once X is obtained, the following equation, Eq. 2, is used to calibrate the vector of test DUT  $ia_{(m)}$ s (“ $tia_{(m)}$ ”s) obtained from a logic test  $T_i$  by computing the vector-matrix product  $TIA_{(i)}$  times X, where “i” is the index for the particular test event.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{CTIA}_i = \text{TIA}_i * \mathbf{X} \\
 & [ctia_0 \dots ctia_3] = [tia_0 \dots tia_3] \times \begin{bmatrix} x_{00} & x_{01} & x_{02} & x_{03} \\ x_{10} & x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{20} & x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \\ x_{30} & x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Eq.2})
 \end{aligned}$$

In this equation the vector CTIA represents the matrix of calibrated test DUT current areas (“ $ctia_{(m)}$ ”s) at each of the  $P_{pwr(m)}$ s, whose values are subsequently used in the current fractions,  $\delta_{(m)}$ , for the detection and localization procedures. It is to be recognized that Equation 2 is illustrative of only one quad, and that for an entire integrated circuit of M power pads, the X matrix would be an M x M matrix, and the  $TIA_i$  and  $CTIA_i$  vectors would be M-element vectors.

## 8. Overview of the Process

As illustrated by Figure 11, in a preferred embodiment of the method of the present invention, a known defect-free reference chip is selected or a simulation model of the circuit to be tested is constructed. In the former case, the probe card is first placed against reference chip so as to make electrical connections between the L ground pads  $P_{gnd}$ , the M power pads  $P_{pwr}$  and N signal input and output pads  $P_{in}$ , on the one hand, and corresponding contacts on the probe card, on the other hand. Then, each of the M calibration circuits is turned on and off sequentially, for a predetermined integration time. While each calibration circuit is on, the individual power currents  $i_{pwr(m)}(t)$  are measured,

preferably the integrated areas measured first have leakage current subtracted from them. Leakage current is the current that is sourced through the pad when the inputs to the chip are not being changed. The total calibration current  $i_{\text{ctot}}$  for the entire IC is also measured. These power currents are integrated over the integration time to produce respective

5 “calibration current areas”  $\text{cia}_{(m)}$  and a total current area  $\text{tcia}$ . The  $\text{cia}_{(m)}$  are normalized by the  $\text{tcia}$  and saved as  $\text{ncia}_{(m)}$  in an  $M^{1/2} \times M^{1/2}$  matrix  $\text{NCIA}_{\text{ref}}$ , wherein the row index represents the calibration circuit and the column index represents the power pad at which the current is measured. The results of this process are identical if a simulation model is used instead. This step is designated (1) in Figure 11.

10 An input test signal vector  $V_{\text{tsig}}(t)$  is then applied to the input pads of the reference DUT, hereafter referred to as a logic test. It will be recognized that the test signal vector will ordinarily have  $N$  components  $v_{\text{tsig}(n)}(t)$ , corresponding to respective input pads  $P_{\text{in}(n)}$  on the DUT. While the input test signal vector is applied, all of the  $M$  power currents  $i_{\text{pwr}(m)}$  are measured, optionally adjusted for leakage current and integrated over the

15 integration time to produce “reference current areas”  $\text{ria}_{(m)}$ . The  $\text{ria}_{(m)}$  are saved as a  $1 \times M$  area vector  $\text{RIA}_{(i)}$ , for each logic test  $i$ . It is to be appreciated that, in the case of a digital integrated circuit, the input test signal vector preferably comprises a temporal sequence of two digital vectors so as to produce a transient signal, though a sequence of more than two digital vectors might also be used.

20 For each quad, the appropriate current fractions are computed using elements of  $\text{RIA}_{(i)}$  and the centroids (given by  $(x,y)$  coordinates) are computed and saved. (The details of this process are described in the next section). This process is repeated for each logic test. The data obtained from these tests is used in the testing process of all subsequent test DUTs. In the case of a simulation model, the process is identical except the logic tests are

25 simulated under the simulation model. This step is designated by (2) in Figure 11.

The same procedure is applied for each test DUT, i.e., the probe card is placed against the test DUT and the calibrations tests are performed. The  $\text{cia}_{(m)}$  measured under each calibration test are normalized and saved as  $\text{ncia}_{(m)}$  in an  $M^{1/2} \times M^{1/2}$  matrix  $\text{NCIA}_{\text{test}}$ . (Step (3) in Figure 11). After the completion of the calibration tests, a translation matrix

30  $X$  is computed by multiplying the inverse of  $\text{NCIA}_{\text{test}}$  times  $\text{NCIA}_{\text{ref}}$ . (Step (4) in Figure

11). The translation matrix  $X$  is used to calibrate the measured power currents  $i_{pwr(m)}$  obtained from the application of the logic tests to the test DUT as explained below.

A logic test  $i$  is then applied to the DUT and the  $M$  power currents  $i_{pwr(m)}$  are measured, optionally adjusted for leakage current and integrated over the integration time to produce “test current areas”  $tia_{(m)}$ . The  $tia_{(m)}$  are saved as a  $1 \times M$  area vector  $TIA_{(i)}$ . The  $TIA_{(i)}$  vector is then transformed to a set of calibrated test current areas,  $CTIA_{(i)}$  by computing the vector-matrix product of  $CTIA_{(i)} = TIA_{(i)} * X$  (Step (5) in Figure 11). The appropriate current fractions are computed using the  $CTIA_{(i)}$  values and the centroids (given by  $(x,y)$  coordinates) are computed and compared against the centroids computed earlier using the  $RIA_{(i)}$  values (Step (6) in Figure 11). If any  $(x,y)$  position computed using the  $CTIA_{(i)}$  values is located outside a predetermined region surrounding the reference centroid in any quad, then the test DUT is classified as defective (Step (7) to Step (8) in Figure 11). The predetermined region can be based on a statistical characterization of noise sources that cannot be accounted for, such as those present in the testing environment. If the centroids of the test DUT fall within the reference centroid regions in all quads, then the test DUT passes the test (Step (7) to Step (9) in Figure 11). The same process is repeated under each test vector (Step (9) to Step (5) in Figure 11). The test DUT is classified as defect-free if it passes all tests (Step (9) to Step (10) in Figure 11), otherwise it is classified as defective and a defect localization procedure is carried out using the CIA, RIA and TIA data from the test and reference DUTs as explained below (Step (8) in Figure 11).

It is also possible to measure transient “voltage” waveforms instead of current waveforms and compute the area under the voltage waveforms. The individual voltages need to be measured close to the DUT, that is, near the C4 power pads, for example at points 214 and 216 in Figure 8. At these points, the transient voltage is proportional, or is a reflection of, the transient currents because of the RLC components in the testing system, that is, the resistance in the probe card itself and in other connections and routing back to the test’s power supply 212. An advantage is that transient voltages can be measured “non- invasively;” it is unnecessary to insert anything in series between the DUT and the test power supply, which is necessary where transient currents are measured.



## 9. Details of the Process

The calibration of the test DUT current areas is done to minimize the effect of variations in contact resistances between the probe card and DUT, and other series impedance elements between the DUT and test system power supply. Specifically, the inverse of the NCIA is taken to produce  $\text{NCIA}^{-1}$  and that is multiplied times a reference matrix  $R$  to produce a transformation matrix  $X$ . In its simplest form, the reference matrix may be the identity matrix  $I$ ; however, in the preferred embodiment the reference matrix comprises a matrix of the integrated areas of respective power currents into each of the  $M$  power pads for each of the  $M$  calibration circuits for either (1) a simulated device, or (2) an actual, defect-free reference device. The effect of variations in series RLC elements of the testing environment is to cause the currents to each of the supply ports to redistribute. The redistribution can be described by a linear transformation from one set of measured current areas (under one probe card model) to those measured under a second probe card model. The transformation matrix  $X$  provides the coefficients needed to realize the transformation.

Given the calibrated current areas from a logic test applied to the test DUT, whether the test DUT is defective or not can be determined. This is done by computing the centroids for each of the quads of the power grid, and comparing them with the centroids computed from a simulated or reference device. If any of the centroid positions of the test DUT differ from their expected positions by more than an acceptable amount, typically three standard deviations ( $3\sigma$ ), the DUT is deemed defective.

To find the centroid of test current for a quad under a logic test applied to the test DUT, the  $\text{ctia}_{(qp)}$  for each power pad  $P_{\text{pwr}(qp)}$  of the quad are examined to identify the largest current area, whose pad is chosen as the principal pad. For example, assume without loss of generality that the  $\text{ctia}$  measured at  $P_{\text{pwr}(q0)}$  is largest, having  $\text{ncia}_{(q0)}$  and  $\text{ctia}_{(q0)}$ . The reference chip  $\text{ncia}$  values are used in this process, i.e., those from  $\text{NCIA}_{\text{ref}}$ . The two next highest current areas, chosen under the constraint that the corresponding power pads are orthogonally adjacent to the primary pad, define the secondary pads, which are in this example  $P_{\text{pwr}(q1)}$ , having  $\text{ncia}_{(q1)}$  and  $\text{ctia}_{(q1)}$ , and  $P_{\text{pwr}(q2)}$ , having  $\text{ncia}_{(q2)}$  and  $\text{ctia}_{(q2)}$ . Four calibration current fractions  $\delta_{c(qx0)}$ ,  $\delta_{c(qx2)}$ ,  $\delta_{c(qy0)}$  and  $\delta_{c(qy2)}$ , and two test current fractions  $\delta_{l(qx)}$  and  $\delta_{l(qy)}$ , are then computed, where:

$\delta_{c(qx0)}$  is the calibration current fraction in the x dimension, that is, between primary pad  $P_{(q0)}$  and secondary pad  $P_{(q2)}$ , for quad q when the calibration circuit  $CC_{(q0)}$  is applied;

5  $\delta_{c(qx2)}$  is the calibration current fraction in the x direction for quad q when the calibration circuit  $CC_{(q2)}$  is applied;

$\delta_{c(qy0)}$  is the calibration current fraction in the y dimension, that is, between primary pad  $P_{(q0)}$  and secondary pad  $P_{(q1)}$ , for quad q when the calibration circuit  $CC_{(q0)}$  is applied; and

10  $\delta_{c(qy1)}$  is the calibration current fraction in the y dimension when the calibration circuit  $CC_{(q1)}$  is applied;

$\delta_{t(qx)}$  is the test current fraction in the x dimension for quad q; and

$\delta_{t(qy)}$  is the test current fraction in the y dimension for quad q.

15 For the calibration current fractions:

$\delta_{c(qx0)} = ncia_{(q0)} / (ncia_{(q0)} + ncia_{(q2)})$ , where  $CC_{(q0)}$  is applied;

20  $\delta_{c(qx2)} = ncia_{(q0)} / (ncia_{(q0)} + ncia_{(q2)})$ , where  $CC_{(q2)}$  is applied;

$\delta_{c(qy0)} = ncia_{(q0)} / (ncia_{(q0)} + ncia_{(q1)})$ , where  $CC_{(q0)}$  is applied; and

$\delta_{c(qy1)} = ncia_{(q0)} / (ncia_{(q0)} + ncia_{(q1)})$ , where  $CC_{(q1)}$  is applied.

25 For the test current fractions:

$\delta_{t(qx)} = ctia_{(q0)} / (ctia_{(q0)} + ctia_{(q2)})$ , and

30  $\delta_{t(qy)} = ctia_{(q0)} / (ctia_{(q0)} + ctia_{(q1)})$ .

The current fractions are used, together with the coordinates of the principal pad, and a parameter “c”, to find the equations of two hyperbolas, and the intersection of those two hyperbolas is taken as the centroid of the test current. The equation of the hyperbola

35 is:

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y - k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

where  $x$  is the  $x$  coordinate of a point on the hyperbola within the quad;  
 $y$  is the  $y$  coordinate of a point on the hyperbola within the quad;  
5  $h$  is the  $x$  coordinate of the principal pad of the quad;  
 $k$  is the  $y$  coordinate of the principal pad of the quad;  
 $a$  is the minimum distance of the hyperbola to a line half way between  
the foci of the hyperbola;  
 $c$  is half the distance between the primary and secondary pads and  
10  $b = [c^2 - a^2]^{1/2}$ .

The “a” parameters are found from:

$$15 \quad a_{(qx)} = D/2 - D[(\delta_{c(qx0)} - \delta_{l(qx)})/(\delta_{c(qx0)} - \delta_{c(qx2)})], \text{ and}$$

$$a_{(qy)} = D/2 - D[(\delta_{c(qy0)} - \delta_{l(qy)})/(\delta_{c(qy0)} - \delta_{c(qy1)})], \text{ and}$$

the corresponding “b” parameters are then found, as indicated above. Since the parameter  
“c” is provided, that is,  $c = D/2$  (see Figure 5), the two hyperbola equations are then  
20 defined, and the centroid is located by simultaneous solution of the two hyperbola  
equations for their intersection  $(x,y)$ .

The centroid for each quad of the DUT is found as described above, and the  
positions of these centroids are then compared with the expected positions of the  
centroids, as stated above. Where the difference in position exceeds the acceptable  
25 amount, the DUT is taken as defective. The process could stop at this point, by simply  
rejecting the DUT. However, as discussed above, valuable information about the true  
position of the defect can be obtained by further analysis.

## 10. Localization

30 The centroids computed for the purpose of fault detection are not likely to yield  
accurate predictions of the actual location of the defect. This is because the  $ia_{(m)}$ s may  
include contributions from logic signals propagating along multiple paths in the DUT,  
only some of which are actually affected by the defect. The current area produced by the

defect-free paths must be subtracted from the current area actually measured in order to obtain a meaningful prediction result.

For example, Figure 12 shows two quads, one from a reference chip 310 and one from a DUT 312. Two logic paths are shown in each quad 320 and 322 with the power grid resistance abstracted as strings of resistors 324. A resistive shorting defect 300 is shown in the DUT 312. Two current transient waveforms 340 and 342 are measured at the  $P_{pwr(q2)s}$ , in quad  $q$  of reference chip 310 and DUT 312, respectively, on applying calibration test circuit tests using  $CC_{(q2)s}$  346 and 348. Two transient waveforms 350 and 352 are also shown for each of the  $P_{pwr(q2)s}$  under a logic test which propagates signals along paths 320 and 322. Arrow 360 identifies the portion of the waveform whose area is needed in the localization procedure. The remaining (defect-free) portion is produced by path 320 and by the portion of the path 322 preceding the actual defect site in DUT 312.

How the portion identified by 360 can be explained is given by the following example. To further illustrate the general application of the process, assume that in this case  $P_{pwr(q2)}$ , rather than  $P_{pwr(q0)}$ , is selected as the primary pad. The value of the “un-normalized” reference  $cia_{(q2)}$  340 is given as “10”. (None of the calibration  $ias$  is divided by the total current to produce the  $r_{(qp)s}$  and  $ctia_{(qp)s}$  defined previously, since the “performance” information in the calibration  $ias$  needs to be preserved in this procedure). The value of the logic test area 350 is given as “30”. Therefore, the ratio of  $tia_{(q2)}/cia_{(q2)} = 30/10 = 3$  for the reference chip. In order to obtain the “expected” area in the DUT, the calibration test area  $cia_{(q2)}$  for waveform 342 is treated as test data and is first calibrated using the calibration procedure described earlier. In this case, the value of the “calibrated” test area ( $ccia_{(q2)}$ ) is computed as “20”, as shown in Figure 12. The measured logic test area for the DUT waveform 352 is also calibrated and is shown in this example to be “70”. The expected area is given as “60”, which is the reference chip ratio, 3, multiplied by the  $ccia_{(q2)}$ , “20”. The defect area, “10”, is obtained as the difference between the  $ctia_{(q2)}$  that was measured, “70” and the computed expected  $ctia_{(q2)}$ , “60”. The same process is applied to  $P_{pwr(q0)}$  and  $P_{pwr(q3)}$  to obtain the remaining two logic test  $ias$ ,  $ctia_{(q0)}$  and  $ctia_{(q3)}$ . The difference value “10” obtained for the primary pad as well as the two difference values computed for the secondary pads is used to compute the test current fractions in the “centroid” based localization algorithm described in the previous

section. Application of this algorithm yields an (x,y) coordinate that represents the predicted locations of the defect.

#### 11. Test System

5           Although the focus of the foregoing description has been mainly on the calibration and testing process, it is to be recognized that the invention may be embodied in a physical system adapted to carry out the process. Thence, the test probe 200 shown in Figure 9, together with a programmed digital computer, or special purpose processor, that acquires calibration and test data and carries out the mathematical computations of the  
10       process comprise an apparatus embodiment of the invention.

          In addition, it is to be recognized that an IC that incorporates the calibration circuits described above comprises another facet and physical embodiment of the invention.

          The terms and expressions which have been employed in the foregoing  
15       specification are used therein as terms of description and not of limitation, and there is no intention, in the use of such terms and expressions, to exclude equivalents of the features shown and described or portions thereof, it being recognized that the scope of the invention is defined and limited only by the claims which follow.